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ABSTRACT

This is the fourth in a series of four booklets describing the Child Development Associate (CDA) Project at the California State College in Pennsylvania, one of the 13 original CDA pilot programs. Topics covered in this booklet include: a rationale for teacher trainer programs; a review of research on the importance of teacher interpersonal competence; a review of methods designed to improve interpersonal functioning; and methods of recruiting and selecting field site supervisors. (SB)

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TRAVELING TOWARD COMPETENCE

The California State College
Child Development Associate Project

BOOKLET IV: TRAINING THE TRAINERS

PS 009236

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The California State College

Child Development Associate Project

BOOKLET IV: TRAINING THE TRAINERS

by

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California, Pa.

To the California State College
Child Development Associate Field Site Supervisors

This set of booklets is dedicated with great appreciation and affection to the ten field site supervisors of the California State College CDA Program. This group of individuals has been continuously involved with the project since its beginning, first as trainees and then as field site supervisors. Their involvement has been characterized by great commitment, determination, flexibility, and purpose. They, more than anyone else, have directed the course of the project and shaped its philosophy. My thanks to

Sally Aber
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TRAVELING TOWARD COMPETENCE

The California State College Model
of Child Development Associate Training

TRAINING THE TRAINERS

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TRAINING THE TRAINERS

The Multiplier Effect: A Model for Training Trainers

INTRODUCTION

The California State college CDA training project is the only pilot whose design called for an intensive training of field site supervisors.* In the California, Pennsylvania model ten classroom teachers and program educational directors were trained in both CDA and field supervision competencies. In the second phase of the project these people became the field site supervisors for others. Because of the uniqueness of the multiplier effect model, i.e., "each one teach one", the pilot has gained a great deal of expertise in the area of field site supervision and has confirmed our own belief that the quality of field site supervision is the most significant factor in the training experience of a CDA. Competent field site supervisors are critical to quality CDA training.

The three major assumptions that undergird the material reported in this booklet address the achievement of quality supervision. They are:

1. Trainers tend to train the way they've been trained. A natural implication of this assumption is that the training received by trainers should be a model of the approach they themselves will be asked to use.
2. When selecting field site supervisors a program may be determining success or failure for the entire training effort. This assumption speaks not only to the importance of the field site supervisors, but also to the importance of the selection process.
3. Teachers are better left alone than merely tampered with by field site supervisors. This speaks to the quality of supervision required to make this training meaningful. Some well-intentioned supervision may be no more than superficial and thus ineffectual.

*NOTE: Throughout this booklet the terms trainer and field site supervisor will be used interchangeably.

RATIONALE

From our experience a basic rationale for training trainers has been developed. Our first assumption states that people tend to train the way they themselves were trained. This is true of parents, teachers, and also CDA field site supervisors. Pointed examples are not difficult to find. In our own region a field site supervisor, who was in a humanistically-oriented college program, is now succeeding in building a humanistic relationship with her trainees. Other field site supervisors who have completed traditional course-based college programs continue to approach CDA training through traditional means. Although they have unique strengths, neither totally meet the criteria established for CDA training. A vital need on the part of the field site supervisor is to experience training paralleling the style of instruction to be implemented.

CDA is a model of competency-based training for teachers. Similarly, field site supervisors need training based upon stated competencies. CDA requires that preschool teachers have individualized training. Field site supervisors also have individual needs and become frustrated with group experiences which can't focus on individual problems. CDA guidelines have said that preschool teachers need competent models. Obviously field site supervisors would greatly benefit from competent models of CDA training.

The rationale supports this summary of training goals for the field site supervisor:

A. Experiencing competency-based training

The field site supervisor experiences a style of training paralleling the competency-based approach that will be implemented. All training should be based on derived competencies. A process for generating these competencies is presented in detail further on. An individualized analysis of needs should form the basis of the training plan. Competence achievement should be documented. The field site supervisor should experience personalized counseling which models the approach s/he should provide to trainees.

B. Acquiring supervision competencies

Individual field site supervisors should be involved in assessing their own supervision competencies. An emphasis should be placed upon a problem-solving cycle which eliminates barriers to competence. From this process emerges an individualized training plan for the development of specific competencies.

A list of supervision role functions and tasks developed by California State College is included in this booklet. These form the basis for our derived supervision competencies. Since the role definition adopted by all programs will vary, a process for generating unique competencies from a list of tasks is outlined here.

A Process for Generating Job-Related Competencies

1. Task Analysis

End Product: A complete set of tasks required by a specific job, organized and consolidated under major job functions.

2. Self Assessment of Tasks

End Product: Set of scores indicating competence in dealing with task, personal value of task, and impact of task on overall job performance.

3. Counseling Session

End Product: Selection of task(s) which form the basis of the initial training plan.

4. Brainstorming Session

End Product: Set of competencies ie., skills and knowledges necessary to perform selected tasks.

5. Problem-Solving Sessions

End Product: A personal training plan based on those competencies which are presently barriers to successful task performance.

Above five steps repeated many times with all participants of training effort.

6. Clustering of all Competencies

End Product: A set of competencies needed to perform a job organized such that those which are related are clustered together under competency areas.

7. Evaluation

End Product: Assembled evidence indicating whether or not all competencies are appropriate to the role definition.

Trainer Functions and Tasks

The following trainer functions apply to field site supervisors in competency-based training programs such as CDA. Following each function is a list of tasks related to the function. These functions and tasks inevitably reflect a specific philosophy of training, in this case that of the California State College CDA Project. The field site supervision functions and tasks are:

- I. A field site supervisor orients the trainee to the child care center and to the CDA training program.

- A. Orientation to the child care center

1. Introduce the trainee to the established philosophy and goals of the center.
 2. Introduce the trainee to the daily schedule, routines, and rules of the center.
 3. Clarify the functions and expectations for all staff in the center, including the trainee.
 4. Engage the trainee in ongoing evaluation of the consistency of program implementation with the stated philosophy and goals.
 5. Orient the trainee to the building and materials.
 6. Include the trainee in staff meetings.
 7. Acquaint trainee with emergency procedures in the center.

- B. Orientation to CDA training

1. Clearly define the commitment of trainee, center staff, and CDA program staff to each other.
 2. Clearly explain how CDA training differs from traditional training.
 3. Explain the pioneering/experimental features of the CDA program.
 4. Clarify the relationship of the focus of the CDA training program to the goals of the center.
 5. Explain the competency statements in language understandable to the trainee.
 6. Provide the trainee with information and materials on the CDA training effort.

- II. A field site supervisor provides ongoing assessment and documentation of a trainee's competence.

- A. Observation of the trainee

1. Focus observation on a single competency statement or a few at a time.
 2. Inform the trainee in advance of the focus of your observation.
 3. Involve the trainee in the creation or selection of an appropriate observation guide focused on specific behavioral indicators of competence.
 4. Keep a record of those observation guides which most successfully provided useful information.
 5. Use video-tapes to allow for self-observation.

- B. Documentation

1. Develop a portfolio for each trainee in which records will be kept.
 2. Involve various people in contributing to the portfolio.

3. Use observation guides and products of the trainee as documentation.
4. Clearly indicate the competency and behavioral objective that an observation guide or product is documenting.
5. Provide overall profiles and summaries on the trainee's progress.
6. Involve the trainee in self-assessment procedures that document her/his own perception of competence.

III. A field site supervisor designs and implements an individualized training plan with the trainee.

A. Problem-Solving

1. Build the individual training plan around problem areas and/or areas of strong interest and value to the trainee.
2. Probe to determine what specific barriers exist preventing the trainee from demonstrating a competency.
3. Write behavioral objectives which would enable the trainee to remove barriers to competence.
4. Provide alternative learning strategies which are directly related to improving the quality of life of the children and parents being served.
5. Allow trainee to choose personalized strategies for meeting the stated objectives from alternatives.
6. Clearly establish with the trainee the criteria for an acceptable performance in meeting the stated objectives.
7. Clarify for the trainee the purpose behind every task.
8. Keep a record of those training strategies which effectively brought about the desired change in behavior.
9. Provide other alternatives for those strategies which do not succeed in changing behavior.
10. Assist trainee in developing rationale and strategies for long-term application of competency.

B. Education Encounters

1. Orient the trainee to professional meetings and programs.
2. Include trainee in small group sessions and workshops.
3. Help trainee develop communication skills needed for advanced training.
4. Include trainee in some home visits, parent conferences, and parent meetings.
5. Introduce trainee to professional publications, often suggesting specific articles.
6. Introduce trainee to the community.

C. Integration of academic and field experiences

1. Provide information to the project coordinator about the needs of the trainee and the needs of the center that would be relevant to setting up course work.
2. Focus trainee's attention on observing children's behavior in many dimensions.
3. Verbalize how what is happening in the classroom relates to child development theory.
4. Encourage trainee to question practices in light of theory or vice versa.
5. Point out in advance critical errors to be avoided and common false assumptions.

IV. A field site supervisor models competent behavior for the trainee.

- A. Share with trainee plans for own continuation of professional growth.
- B. Model the role of learner as well as supervisor.
- C. Demonstrate CDA competencies.
- D. Point out the behavior of children as a consequence of one teaching strategy as opposed to another.
- E. Clarify long-term effects on children as a consequence of one teaching strategy as opposed to another.
- F. Work alongside trainee to provide another view of teaching.
- G. Provide alternative models of competent teaching through films, video tapes, field trips, etc.

V. A field site supervisor provides professional counseling, according to individual trainee needs.

A. Clarify values of trainee

1. Help trainee to describe her/his own philosophy, goals and assumptions about children.
2. Help trainee determine her/his own set of classroom rules and routines.
3. Allow trainee opportunities to experiment with new ideas, even though they are not familiar or consistent with your approach.
4. Provide strategies and discussion that will allow trainee to clarify her/his professional goals.
5. Openly discuss different value systems existing in the center and the profession and how these differences might be accommodated.
6. Help trainee to evaluate whether s/he is acting consistently on her/his beliefs and values concerning children.

B. Affirm the worth of trainee

1. Seek the trainee's perceptions and interpretations in daily

evaluation and planning session.

2. Allow the trainee the opportunity to handle classroom episodes, providing support but not interference.
3. Be open to suggestions, concerns and criticisms from trainee.
4. Show respect for the feelings and ideas of the trainee, even when you don't agree with them.
5. Assume good motives behind the trainee's behavior, even when the behavior is inappropriate.
6. Set realistic expectations for the trainee on the basis of her/his stage of development.
7. Use principles of encouragement and positive reinforcement through specific and selective praise.
8. Give trainee recognition for and make use of the strengths achieved, competencies, positive values and attitudes s/he already possesses.
9. Actively listen to the trainee.
10. Take into account a trainee's priorities for training.

C. Provide feedback to trainee on progress

1. Help trainee analyze self on video tape.
2. Reinforce competent behaviors first, then deal with areas needing improvement.
3. Offer alternative patterns of behavior when inappropriate patterns exist.
4. Discuss in conferences critical incidents as they arise.
5. Provide opportunity for trainee to evaluate her/his own performance before making suggestions.
6. Inquire to find out trainee's reasons for behaving as s/he did, or goals s/he hoped to achieve.
7. Depersonalize critical feedback.
8. Conduct regularly scheduled conferences with trainee.

VI. A field site supervisor provides resources to assist trainee in gaining competence.

- A. Provide learning resource center.
- B. Refer trainee to resource persons who might help trainee in developing competency.
- C. Make suggestions for change indirectly by using media related to that competency.
- D. Refer to authorities in early childhood development and education.
- E. Involve community resource specialists as the need arises.
- F. Guide trainee to appropriate resources for her/his reading and professional level.
- G. Train candidate to operate video-tape equipment.

TRAINING TOWARD QUALITY SUPERVISION

In speaking of the supervision of classroom teachers, Cogan made the statement, "Teachers are better left alone than simply tampered with."¹ This is a strong statement which certainly challenges what I believe to be a commonly held myth. The myth is that intervention is always helpful; at least it cannot harm anything. Especially in the area of helping relationships, there is a tendency to believe that warm sincerity quickly issued is enough to help someone.

Perhaps the widespread belief in this myth is the reason why helpers intervening on behalf of others become careless at times of their own professionalism. Perhaps it is this myth that is also at the heart of organizational decisions to save money by increasing the ratio of trainees to supervisors or by eliminating the expense of training supervisors.

But if the facts were examined, many cases could be cited where intervention was not helpful, and indeed was harmful. It can be assumed that every relationship, every contact, has some effect. Furthermore, there is much evidence to document the fact that effects are cumulative. Therefore, failures are cumulative. Repeated failures to be helped make one less and less open to future help. This being the case, teachers-in-training such as CDA candidates are indeed better left alone than simply tampered with. Therefore, the professional helper, such as a field site supervisor, should be trained in order to increase the likelihood of positive outcomes from her/his intervention.

What does it take to intervene in a meaningful, helpful way in the lives of others? I believe it takes, first of all, a great deal of time. Much of this time needs to be spent on a one-to-one basis so there can develop the comfortable, non-threatening relationship that makes helping possible. Because time costs money, there must also be a commitment of financial resource. But more than that, positive intervention requires highly developed skills on the part of the intervenor: interaction skills, problem-solving skills, supervisory skills, and specialized skills. It also means an understanding of one's self. The effective helper understands his abilities, predispositions, and limitations. Knowing himself, he consistently makes the ethical decision to stay within his range of competence. Many things could be added to the list of requirements such as knowledge, understanding, clear values, and a philosophy upon which to base and test decisions.

Carl Rogers in his book, *On Becoming a Person*, has keynoted another requirement for the effective intervenor. He discussed the predisposition of most of us to immediately and continually make judgments about another person. To Rogers it is imperative for the helper to primarily seek to understand rather than judge another. Understanding can come through effective listening and objective observing.

Robert Carkhuff, an author and researcher in the area of the helping relationship, has pointed out another requirement for the effective intervenor. Carkhuff values in a helper the ability and willingness to make a great energy commitment. He believes such a commitment is necessary if one is to avoid easy short cuts and is to choose instead the disciplined and systematic intervention that brings positive results.

Teachers and the children they teach should not be tampered with. But neither should they be left alone. They deserve the competent professional intervention which facilitates positive growth changes. Therefore, there must be time, money, and energy committed to training quality CDA field site supervisors.

Most of the training of the field site supervisor should be directed toward the attainment of specific competencies generated on the basis of a specific role definition. However, I have come to the conclusion that regardless of the philosophy or trainer role definition adopted by any CDA program, in order for quality field site supervision to be a reality, field site supervisors should receive direct human relations training. At one time I could only defend that position through instinct and experience. At this time I present a critical examination of the implications of direct human relations training for field supervisors based on a review of current research.

*Morris L. Cogan, *Clinical Supervision* (Boston, Mass: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1973) p. 15.



**Human Relations and Interaction Skills:
A Critical Examination of the Implications of
Direct Human Relations Training for Field Supervisors**

The ultimate goal of field site supervision is the improvement of the quality of services received by the children. It is believed that a collegial relationship between a supervisor and the classroom teacher can facilitate improvement in the competence of the teacher and thus improve the quality of the services received by children. "The teacher needs a sustained, expert program to help him relinquish his existing classroom behavior in favor of new behavior, a program strong enough to help him apply such new competences to the specific conditions that obtain for each child, for each class, and for the teacher himself. Such a program must focus on in-class supervision . . ."¹

Keeping this goal in mind, I am attempting to answer three questions based on a review of current educational and psychological research. The first question is whether services for children are ultimately benefited by the improved interpersonal relation skills of the field supervisors working with classroom teachers. If not, the second question perhaps become unnecessary. The second question is whether field supervisors can improve interpersonal relating skills through direct human relations training. And if so, what kinds of human relations training is most productive?

Since there was no research found which directly attempted to answer these questions in relation to field supervision, inferences must be made from research which indirectly bears on the questions. Much of this research came from the field of counseling and counselor education.

Although field supervision is very different from therapy, there is the common goal of both to establish a relationship characterized by empathy, positive regard, genuineness and concreteness in the belief that such a relationship facilitates positive growth. Therefore, it is assumed that we might generalize from studies which deal with such relationship ingredients.

Improving Instruction Through Improved Human Relations

**FIELD SUPERVISORS' INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE AS IT
RELATES TO THE TEACHER-SUPERVISOR RELATIONSHIP**

In order to improve the quality of services for children, improved teacher competence is often required. Teachers gain competence by making appropriate and sustained changes in their behavior. One strategy commonly applied in field site supervision is the joint negotiation based on trends and critical incidents identified through an analysis of data.² The success of this strategy is highly dependent on a climate of cooperation.

There is some research to indicate that the interpersonal skills of a participant may affect the outcome of such sensitive negotiations. David Johnson studied three interpersonal variables in a negotiation situation: warmth of interaction, accuracy of understanding, and the proposal of compromises.

Johnson worked with three hypotheses: 1. "... that accuracy of understanding, compared with inaccuracy of understanding, will result in the conviction that one has been clearly heard and understood, thus reducing defensive adherence to one's point of view and reducing feelings of being threatened, and thereby resulting in a willingness to reach an agreement in negotiations . . . 2. It is hypothesized that the expression of warmth, compared to the expression of coldness, will result in more favorable attitudes toward actor . . . 3. Assuming that proposing a compromise signals cooperative intent and increases the cooperative forces in the situation, it is hypothesized that more agreements will be reached when compromises are proposed than when they are not."³

Johnson trained "confederates" to be able to do a role reversal so upon instructions they could express warmth or coldness, accuracy or inaccuracy, a series of compromises or no compromise. Judges were used to identify the correct condition. Behavioral definitions were given to the variables.

In an initial phase of the experimental procedure, group members were oriented to some negotiations and built commitment to a group position on an issue. The success of this phase was substantiated by a questionnaire. In the second phase the group members negotiated with members of a second group (the confederates).

Participating in the experiment were 128 volunteer college students who were randomly assigned to the conditions. The results substantiated the hypotheses. For instance, in conditions of accuracy of understanding more agreements were reached ($p = .05$), the participants felt significantly more understood ($p = .01$), and trusted the confederates significantly more ($p = .05$). In conditions of warmth the confederates were viewed as more understanding ($p = .05$), more trusted ($p = .01$), and more cooperative ($p = .01$). In the condition of offering a series of compromises the confederates were trusted significantly less ($p = .05$), but felt to be more cooperative ($p = .05$). More agreements were reached in this condition as hypothesized ($p = .01$).

It would appear from this study that to the extent that one wishes to negotiate compromises and influence a climate of cooperation, he may benefit from skill in demonstrating accuracy of understanding, warmth, and the ability to offer compromises.

FIELD SUPERVISORS' INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE AS IT AFFECTS TEACHER INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE

The question might be raised whether there is any other effect on the teacher in addition to facilitating the negotiation of compromises.

Pierce and Schauble studied the effects of individualized supervision on graduate student interns in a counselor education program. They studied the relationship of the level of interpersonal functioning of the supervisors to changes in the interpersonal functioning of supervisees. Changes over time in the behavior of the counselor interns on the facilitative dimensions of empathy, regard, genuineness and concreteness were examined.

The hypotheses for this study were: "1. The supervisors will gain in their rated levels of functioning on the facilitative core of dimensions. 2. The supervisees of the high-functioning supervisors will function significantly higher on the core of facilitative dimensions after training than the supervisees of the low-level supervisors. 3. The supervisees of the low-level functioning supervisors will not gain in their levels of functioning on the facilitative core of dimensions unless they are initially functioning at a lower level than their supervisor."⁴

The fifteen supervisees were education and psychology students who had completed 80% or more of their course work for the PhD. The supervisors were working from a variety of theoretical backgrounds. The judges who rated the facilitative conditions had a high correlation: empathy .95, regard .90, genuineness .92, and concreteness .95.

Tape recordings of the counselor supervisees as they conducted client interviews were rated on the four dimensions at six-week intervals. Tapes of client therapy sessions of the supervisors were similarly rated. The supervisors were then divided into high and low-functioning groups.

Because of the limited N, non-parametric statistics were used. The results confirmed the three hypotheses. For hypotheses 1 the significance level was ($p < .05$) and for hypothesis 2 ($p < .01$).

A second study, this time conducted with critic teachers and teacher trainees, also indicates that trainees move in the direction of their supervisor's level of interpersonal competence. It was hypothesized by Hefele that the "... quality of interpersonal processes to which teacher-trainees are exposed during their practicum experiences would relate positively to their own interpersonal functioning."⁵

In this study sixteen graduate students were assigned to fifteen experienced critic teachers for a six-week period of student teaching (mid February to end of March). Three one-half hour video tapes were made on each teacher-critic and teacher-trainee in November, February and April. These tapes were rated on levels of facilitative functioning. It was found that the critic teachers and trainees subsequently exerted a reciprocal impact on one another during the six-week practicum period. Their rating on facilitative functioning tended to approximate each other's more closely as the practicum period progressed.

These two pieces of research point to the dynamic relationship of a supervisor and supervisee in their influence on each other in interpersonal functioning.⁶

TEACHERS' INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE AS IT AFFECTS PUPIL ACHIEVEMENT

Even if a supervisor's high functioning in human relation skills would enable the supervisee, the teacher, to increase interpersonal competence, the question still remains as to how this might benefit students.

In Hefele's study with critic teachers and teachers in training, the effect on the pupils was also examined. His hypothesis was that the quality of interpersonal processes occurring in the classroom could relate positively to pupil achievement.⁷

His study used college supervisors to make judgments about the levels of pupil involvement in classroom learning. Rate-rater reliability figures ranged from .75 to .92. Grade level scores from the California Achievement Test were also used. There were 99 children involved.

The teacher level of functioning predictors was found to relate significantly to the group of ten achievement measures ($p < .0001$). It was concluded that reading achievement was definitely related in a significantly positive direction.

Aspy also related reading achievement to the teacher's interpersonal functioning. Aspy selected teachers with high and low levels of emotional and interpersonal skills. He found that pupils of teachers offering high levels of empathy, warmth and genuineness demonstrated significantly greater gains in reading achievement than students of low-functioning teachers.

Truax and Tatum studied the relationship between the human relation skills of empathic understanding, unconditional positive regard, and genuineness to children's school adjustment. Twenty preschool children in one laboratory school were assessed on three levels of adjustment: 1. adjustment to preschool, 2. adjustment to teacher and 3. adjustment to peers.

The results indicated that the frequency of interaction was significant for adjustment to school and teacher but not for adjustment to peers ($p = .05$). Empathy was found to be significant for all three types of adjustment ($p = .05$). Positive regard was significant ($p = .05$) but genuineness was not.

Improving Interpersonal Functioning Through Direct Human Relations Training For Field Site Supervisors

THE POTENTIAL FOR IMPROVING INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE THROUGH ENCOUNTER GROUPS

I have reported some evidence which tends to indicate that field supervisors can make an impact upon the quality of education through their interpersonal competence. At this point it is perhaps beneficial to investigate if this competence can be developed through direct human relations training.

Encounter groups of varying types are one of the most widely known and experienced methods for direct human relations training. But several pieces of recent research raise serious questions about their effectiveness in changing behavior rather than merely attitudes. Since it is the development of competent interpersonal behavior that is being investigated, these studies are worth consideration.

Lieberman, Yalom and Miles assessed the impact of eighteen encounter groups representing ten approaches to personal change. Two hundred nine college undergraduate volunteers were randomly assigned to the eighteen groups. A control group of sixty-nine persons was used.

Many change indices were used, three of which relate to human relations: 1. interpersonal constructs, 2. interpersonal orientation, and 3. interpersonal styles. There were also many sources of data: 1. pre and post tests, 2. leader ratings, 3. self ratings, 4. peer group ratings of in-group behavior, and 5. external "social network" judgments of change. Observers were also systematically rotated to assess group conditions.

The basic question asked was, "In what ways and to what degree do encounter groups change individuals?" Individual outcome measures were collected prior to the group, immediately after the group, and six months later. It was interesting to note that the sixteen group leaders used were all highly experienced and several had national reputations.⁸

The results indicated that in the self-ratings, 61% reported that their particular group had changed them in a positive way. These self-ratings significantly differed from the controls on a number of behaviors, clustering in the areas of increased understanding of inner feelings and increased sensitivity to others. These favorable judgments dropped considerably after six months, however.

There were no significant differences on behavior changes between experimental and control groups as judged by members of the social network. Many of the change measures did not show major differences between participants and controls, especially in the interpersonal areas.

The cumulative index of change revealed that one-third of those who participated in the groups benefited from them; a little over one-third remained unchanged; and the remainder experienced some form of negative change. The most disturbing finding of all was that after several months 9.4 per cent of the participants showed evidence of enduring psychological harm. The researchers considered this a conservative estimate.

Argyris also found a discrepancy between the actual behavior of participants and what they say they experienced and learned in encounter groups. Argyris used a scoring system on the verbal interactions of participants of personal growth laboratories to assess changes in ideas and feelings on both a personal and interpersonal level.

Argyris found that many people described the experience in glowing terms and as an experience that transcended "the mechanistic world". But these feelings were not confirmed by actual verbal behavior when verbal interactions were compared as they existed in the groups and in the "mechanistic world". He found that the verbal interactions of participants in personal relations laboratories had scores indicative of very high levels of conformity, antagonism, coercion, competitiveness and stress.

Argyris has raised other serious questions about the effectiveness of encounter groups or personal growth laboratories for direct training in human relations, although he did not research these questions. His concern was participants' tendency toward dependence on the group and increased hostility towards the real world.⁹ He also challenged whether personal growth laboratories prepare individuals for the task world since such groups tend to deemphasize the integration of tasks on "getting things done" for the enhancement of personal learning.¹⁰ Such questions should be of concern to people whose goal is competence in the real world.



A STRUCTURED APPROACH TO HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING AS AN ALTERNATIVE TO ENCOUNTER GROUPS

Encounter groups as a technique for human relations training for the most part are operated with a low degree of structure. The non-structured learning environment is believed to generate a high degree of ambiguity which would presumably generate emotional involvement of participants and true representation of each person's unique style of interpersonal functioning.¹¹ An alternative to this approach is training which is structured.

Levin and Kurtz experimentally manipulated the degree of structure in human relations training of groups and studied the effects upon participants' perceptions of the group experience. The same group leaders were used in both experimental conditions. A group opinion questionnaire was used to measure the dimensions of ego involvement, self-perceived personality changes and group unity.

There were statistically significant differences found on the three variables mentioned such as participants in structured groups reported higher levels of ego involvement ($p < .01$), greater self-perceived personality change ($p < .05$), and greater perceived group unity ($p < .01$).

Archer and Kagan, however, in their comparison of structured and limited structure training methods found no significant differences in self perceptions. A subjective questionnaire given to students of both kinds of training indicated that 93% of the students felt they had improved their interpersonal skills to some degree. However, these researchers did find significant differences in interpersonal communication skills as measured by an empathy tests, a self actualization inventory and peer relationship ratings in favor of the structured groups ($p < .05$).

Interpersonal communication skills training groups using an interpersonal-process-recall videotape feedback training model were compared with groups using a limited structure encounter group model and with no treatment control groups.

Carkhuff designed an integrated didactic, modeling, and experiential training approach to human relations skills which has served as an alternative to encounter groups.¹² Carkhuff's system was used in several research studies and found to be effective for training both large and small groups to function at or above minimum facilitative levels.¹³

Butler and Hansen used Carkhuff's approach to training in order to investigate these hypotheses: "a. whether counselors initially rated as being either moderate or low in facilitative functioning experience differential effects from training, b. whether mean level of functioning of each group at the end of training persists over time . . ."¹⁴

The subjects were first-year graduate students in counseling. A random sample was made of forty pre-rated moderate-level and low-level counselors. The results confirmed previous research indicating levels of facilitation can be increased. Pre-rated moderates gained more skill from the training than low-level counselors. Post training levels of functioning were maintained by both groups throughout a four-week latency period.

CONCLUSION

After this review of research it might be profitable to return to the questions posed in the introduction. Is education for children ultimately benefited by the improved interpersonal relating skills of the field site supervisors working with classroom teachers? It would seem that to the extent supervisor-teacher cooperative negotiations are productive in reaching decisions which result in improved services, the supervisor's interpersonal skills are important. The research also indicates that teachers will tend to move in the direction of their supervisor's level of functioning in human relations skills. Competent modeling of these skills on the part of the supervisor thus becomes important for the children in that the children's achievement is related to teacher interpersonal competence.

Can field site supervisors benefit from direct human relations training? The research seems to indicate that human relations training through encounter groups is successful in changing attitudes but not interpersonal behavior. Other serious questions surround encounter groups which raise questions for the supervisor wishing to increase interpersonal competence.

Structured approaches to human relations training appear to be a viable alternative to encounter groups. Changes in behavior were developed and maintained through training modes. It appears that field supervisors could benefit from a structured human relations training option.



FOOTNOTES

1. M. L. Cogan, *Clinical Supervision*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1973, p. 4.
2. *Ibid.*, p. 182.
3. David W. Johnson, "Effects of Warmth of Interaction, Accuracy of Understanding and the Proposal of Compromises on Listener's Behavior." *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 1971, 18, No. 3, p. 208.
4. Richard M. Pierce and Paul G. Schauble, "Graduate Training of Facilitative Counselors: The Effects of Individual Supervision." *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 1970, 17, No. 3, p. 211.
5. Thomas J. Hefele, "The Effects of Systematic Human Relations Training Upon Student Achievement", *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 1971, 4, No. 2, p. 53.
6. Other studies such as that done by Pierce, Carkhuff, and Berenson in "The Differential Effects of High and Low Functioning Counselors Upon Counselor-in-Training," *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 23, substantiate movement toward the interpersonal competence of the trainer. In these cases, however, people offering direct training in the interpersonal skills were studied rather than supervisors.
7. *Op. Cit.*
8. Morton A. Lieberman, Irvin D. Yalom, and Matthew B. Miles, "The Impact of Encounter Groups on Participants: Some Preliminary Findings", *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 1972, 8, No. 1, p. 33.
9. Chris Argyris, "Do Personal Growth Laboratories Represent an Alternative Culture?" *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 1972, 8, p. 25.
10. *Ibid.*, p. 27.
11. Ellen Levin and Robert R. Kurtz, "Structured and Non-Structured Human Relations Training." *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 1974, 21, No. 6, p. 526.
12. Robert R. Carkhuff, *Helping and Human Relations*, Volume 1. New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston, Inc. 1969, p. 151.
13. *Ibid.*, p. 150
14. Edward R. Butler and James C. Hansen, "Facilitative Training: Acquisition, Retention, and Modes of Assessment." *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 1973, 20, No. 1, p. 60.

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RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION OF FIELD SITE SUPERVISORS

There is probably no other single factor more important to the effectiveness of a competency-based training program than the field site supervisors employed by the program. But training alone is not the answer. The recruitment and selection of field site supervisors is in itself a very important process, worthy of much time and consideration. There are special traits and commitments required by such a training effort that dictate the criteria for selection.

The following procedure was followed in recruiting and selecting a group of ten preschool teachers in Western Pennsylvania who were to be first CDA trainees themselves and then field site supervisors to a second generation of trainees.

TASK I: NOTIFICATION TO ALL ELIGIBLE PRESCHOOL PROGRAMS

Information and application forms were distributed to all Head Start and Day Care Program Directors in the geographic area. All application forms required the signature of a program administrator who was sponsoring the applicant. Involvement and support of a program director was viewed as critical for the success of a style of training emphasizing field site supervision.

TASK II: GROUP INTERVIEW

All applicants were invited to attend one of two group meetings at California State College. These meetings had several purposes. The first was to provide enough information to applicants to allow them to realistically decide if this training style was what they were expecting and wanting. The picture was presented honestly and realistically so that no false hopes were encouraged. Applicants could get all their questions answered. Some did decide to withdraw once they understood what was involved. Also, explaining the program in a group setting allowed other issues to be given more time in the individual interviews later.

Through structured group discussion techniques a second purpose was fulfilled at this meeting. The selection committee was able to make decisions about which people appeared to have potential for becoming CDA field site supervisors. The committee decided to eliminate those applicants whose values for children were in strong conflict with the CDA competencies. For example, some strong feelings against parents and their involvement in preschool programs surfaced. Assertiveness in the group discussion was also measured because CDA training requires an assertive, self-directive person who can also listen to the ideas of others. Candidates were sought who made non-judgmental, non-threatening responses indicative of one who is open to learning from others. The committee was also able to discern those candidates who were able to deal with issues

theoretically as well as practically. It was felt by the committee that a field site supervisor must be able to articulate ideas as well as demonstrate competence through behavior.

However, this group procedure alone would not have led to the best selection of trainees. A visit to the applicant's center gave an entirely new perspective.

TASK III: CENTER OBSERVATION AND PERSONAL INTERVIEW

The CDA Coordinator visited at the centers of approximately half of the original group of applicants. In addition to observing the classroom set-up, this afforded an opportunity to observe the applicant interacting with children and other adults. The applicants had ready a folder of materials such as daily schedule, lesson plans, educational plans, children's records, etc. The sophistication of the program, and to some extent the applicant, was reflected in these documents. Part of the agenda of this visit to the applicant's center was an individual interview with the applicant. At this time an attempt was made to understand the applicant's educational attitudes and goals. Time commitments were also discussed. Responsibilities of a CDA trainee were explained in detail.

This classroom visit and personal interview gave a good indication of the teacher's current level of teaching competence. Attitudes of the candidates also came to light. Some became uncomfortable with the experimental, developmental nature of the project. Others were excited about the possibility of helping to shape a new style of training. Some felt they themselves were not in need of training in the CDA competencies before they became field site supervisors. These people were deselected because of the multiplier effect built into the project design. Some were unwilling to make the time and energy commitments required.

TASK IV: SCREENING BY SELECTION COMMITTEE

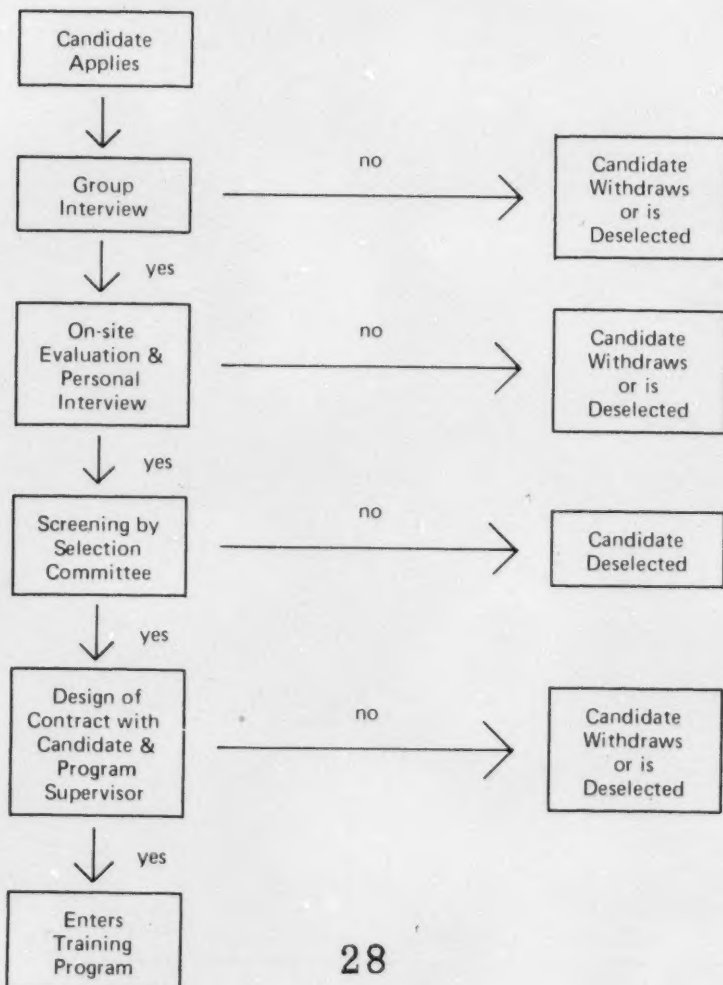
A selection committee reviewed all the information assembled through the group interview and center visit. They selected the original group of CDA trainees who were to be trained as future field site supervisors. However, it was understood that both the trainee and his program supervisor must be willing to make commitments in the form of an agreement or contract before final enrollment in the program.

TASK V: DESIGNING OF A CONTRACT

A meeting was held with the applicant, program administrator and representatives from the training institution. Commitments, guarantees, goals, and limitations were articulated by each person involved. If it became clear that a program administrator would not support the trainee with some release time or would not allow college trainers in the classroom, the candidate was deselected.

By the end of this recruitment and selection process the trainee already had a clear understanding of what was expected of her/him and what s/he could expect from CDA training. Because of this clarity there were no incidents of disillusionment, disappointments, serious misunderstandings, or premature expectations of a credential. Everyone could go about the job of working toward the goals that had been established.

CALIFORNIA STATE COLLEGE SELECTION PROCESS



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